A GENERALIZATION OF HAUSDORFF DIMENSION APPLIED TO HILBERT CUBES AND WASSERSTEIN SPACES

by

Benoît Kloeckner

Abstract. — A Wasserstein space is a metric space of sufficiently concentrated probability measures over a general metric space. The main goal of this paper is to estimate the largeness of Wasserstein spaces, in a sense to be made precise.

In a first part, we generalize the Hausdorff dimension by defining a family of bi-Lipschitz invariants, called critical parameters, that measure largeness for infinite-dimensional metric spaces. Basic properties of these invariants are given, and they are estimated for a naturel set of spaces generalizing the usual Hilbert cube. These invariants are very similar to concepts initiated by Rogers, but our variant is specifically suited to tackle Lipschitz comparison.

In a second part, we estimate the value of these new invariants in the case of some Wasserstein spaces, as well as the dynamical complexity of push-forward maps. The lower bounds rely on several embedding results; for example we provide uniform bi-Lipschitz embeddings of all powers of any space inside its Wasserstein space and we prove that the Wasserstein space of a d-manifold has "power-exponential" critical parameter equal to d. These arguments are very easily adapted to study the space of closed subsets of a compact metric space, partly generalizing results of Boardman, Goodey and McClure.

1. Introduction

This article is motivated by the geometric study of Wasserstein spaces; these are spaces of probability measures over a metric space, which are often infinite-dimensional for any sensible definition of dimension (in particular Hausdorff dimension). This statement seemed to deserve to be made quantitative, and very few relevant invariants seemed available. We shall therefore develop such tools in a first part, then apply them to Wasserstein spaces via embedding results in a second part.

1.1. A generalization of Hausdorff dimension: critical parameters.

— The construction of Hausdorff dimension relies on a family of functions, namely $(r \mapsto r^s)_s$, and one can wonder what happens when this family is replaced by another one. This is exactly what we do: we give conditions on a family of functions (then called a scale) ensuring that a family of measures obtained by the so-called Carathéodory construction from these functions behave more or less like Hausdorff measures do. In particular these criterions ensure the existence of a *critical parameter* that plays the role of Hausdorff dimension, and the Lipschitz invariance of this parameter. It follows that any bi-Lipschitz embedding of a space into another implies an inequality between their critical parameters. We shall use three main scales relevant for increasingly large spaces: the polynomial scale, which defines the Hausdorff dimension; the intermediate scale and the power-exponential scale. We shall say for example that a space has intermediate size if it has a non-extremal critical parameter in the intermediate scale, which implies that it has infinite Hausdorff dimension and minimal critical parameter in the power-exponential scale.

This line of ideas is far from being new: Rogers' book [Rog70] shows that this kind of constructions were well understood forty years ago. Several works have considered infinite-dimensional metric spaces, mostly the set of closed subsets of the interval, and determined for some functions whether they lead to zero or infinite measures; see in particular [Boa73, Goo77, McC97].

Concerning the definition of critical parameters, our main point is to stress conditions ensuring their bi-Lipschitz invariance. But the real contribution of this paper lies in the computation of critical parameters for a variety of spaces, partly generalizing the above papers.

Hausdorff dimension is easy to interpret because the Eulidean spaces can be used for size comparison. There is a natural family of spaces that can play the same role for some families of critical parameter: Hilbert cubes. Given an ℓ^2 sequence of positive real numbers $\bar{a}=(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ (the classical choice being $a_n=1/n$), let $\mathrm{HC}(I;\bar{a})$ be the set of all sequences \bar{u} such that $0\leqslant u_n\leqslant a_n$ for all n, and endow it with the ℓ^2 metric. Here I stands for the unit interval, and the construction generalizes to any compact metric space X: the (generalized) Hilbert cube $\mathrm{HC}(X;\bar{a})$ is the set of sequences $\bar{x}=(x_n)\in X^{\mathbb{N}}$ endowed with the metric

$$d_{\bar{a}}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) := \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2 d(x_n, y_n)^2\right)^{1/2}$$

The main results of the first part are estimations of the critical parameters of generalized Hilbert cubes. In particular, we prove that under positive and finite dimensionality hypotheses, $HC(X, \bar{a})$ has intermediate size if \bar{a} decays exponentially, and has power-exponential size if \bar{a} decays polynomially.

To illustrate this, let us give a consequence of our estimations.

Corollary 1.1. — Let X, Y be any two compact metric spaces, assume X has positive Hausdorff dimension and Y has finite upper Minkowski dimension, and consider two exponents $\alpha < \beta \in (1/2, +\infty)$.

Then there is no bi-Lipschitz embedding $HC(X;(n^{-\alpha})) \hookrightarrow HC(Y;(n^{-\beta}))$.

This non-embedding result, as well as a similar result described below, is different in nature to the celebrated results of Bourgain [Bou86] (a regular tree admits no bi-Lipschitz embedding into a Hilbert space), Pansu [Pan89] and Cheeger and Kleiner [CK10] (the Heisenberg group admits no bi-Lipschitz into a finite-dimensional Banach space nor into L^1). These results involve the fine structure of metric spaces, while our approach is much cruder: all our non-embedding results come from one space being simply too big to fit into another.

Our methods are similar to those used in Hausdorff dimension theory: we rely on Frostman's Lemma, which says that in order to bound from below the critical parameter it is sufficient to exhibit a measure whose local behavior is controlled by one of the scale functions, and on an analogue of Minkowski dimension, which gives upper bounds.

This analogue might be considered the most straightforward manner to measure the largeness of a compact space: it simply encodes the asymptotics of the minimal size of an ε -covering when ε go to zero. However, the Minkowski dimension has some undesirable behavior, notably with respect to countable unions; this already makes Hausdorff dimension more satisfactory, and the same argument applies in favor of our critical parameters.

Whatever scale is used, the construction of critical parameters relies on the existence for all $\varepsilon > 0$ of at least one covering of the space by a sequence of parts E_n whose diameter is at most ε and goes to 0 when n goes to ∞ . This property has been studied under the names "small ball property" and "largest Hausdorff dimension", see the works of Goodey [Goo70], Bandt [Ban81] and Behrends and Kadets [BK01]. In particular, it is proved in [Goo70] and [BK01] that the unit ball of an infinite-dimensional Banach space never has the small ball property. As a consequence, our critical parameters cannot be used to measure the largeness of Banach spaces, apart from the obvious relation between Hausdorff dimension and linear dimension of finite-dimensional Banach spaces.

1.2. Largeness of Wasserstein spaces. — The second part of this article is part of a series, partly joint with Jérôme Bertrand, in which we study some intrinsic geometric properties of the Wasserstein spaces $\mathcal{W}_p(X)$ of a metric space (X, d). These spaces of measures are in some sense geometric measure

theory versions of L^p spaces (see Section 5 for precise definitions). Here we evaluate the largeness of Wasserstein spaces, mostly via embedding results.

Other authors have worked on related topics, for example Lott [Lot08], who computed the curvature of Wasserstein spaces over manifolds (see also Takatsu [Tak08]), and Takatsu and Yokota [TY09] who studied the case when X is a metric cone.

Several embedding and non-embedding results are proved in previous articles for special classes of spaces X, in the most important case p=2. On the first hand, it is easy to see that if X contains a complete geodesic (that is, an isometric embedding of \mathbb{R}), then $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$ contains isometric embeddings of open Euclidean cone of arbitrary dimension [**Klo10a**]. In particular it contains isometric embeddings of Euclidean balls of arbitrary dimension and radius, and bi-Lipschitz embeddings of \mathbb{R}^k for all k. On the other hand, if X is negatively curved and simply connected, $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$ does not contain any isometric embedding of \mathbb{R}^2 [**BK10**].

1.2.1. Embedding powers. — First we describe a bi-Lipschitz embedding of X^k . This power set can be endowed with several equivalent metrics, for example

$$d_p(\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k), \bar{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_k)) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^k d(x_i, y_i)^p\right)^{1/p}$$

and

$$d_{\infty}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} d(x_i, y_i)$$

which come out naturally in the proof; moreover d_{∞} is well-suited to the dynamical application below.

Theorem 1.2. — Let X be any metric space, $p \in [1, \infty)$ and k be any positive integer. There exists a map $f: X^k \to \mathscr{W}_p(X)$ such that for all $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in X^k$:

$$\frac{1}{k(2^k-1)^{\frac{1}{p}}} d_p(\bar{x},\bar{y}) \leqslant W_p(f(\bar{x}),f(\bar{y})) \leqslant \left(\frac{2^{k-1}}{2^k-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} d_p(\bar{x},\bar{y})$$

and that intertwines dynamical systems in the following sense: given any measurable self-map φ of X, denoting by φ_k the induced map on X^k and by $\varphi_\#$ the induced map on measures, it holds

$$f \circ \varphi_k = \varphi_\# \circ f$$
.

Note that since $d_{\infty} \leq d_p \leq k^{\frac{1}{p}} d_{\infty}$ similar bounds hold with d_{∞} ; in fact the lower bound that comes from the proof is in terms of d_{∞} and is slightly better:

$$\frac{1}{k^{1-\frac{1}{p}}(2^k-1)^{\frac{1}{p}}}d_{\infty}(\bar{x},\bar{y}) \leqslant W_p(f(\bar{x}),f(\bar{y})).$$

This result is proved in Section 6.

We shall see in Section 6.2 that the constants cannot be improved much for general spaces, but that for some specific spaces, a bi-Lipschitz map with a lower bound polynomial in k can be constructed. This map however does not enjoy the intertwining property.

The explicit constants in Theorem 1.2 can be used to get information on largeness in the Minkowski sense only, since critical parameters are designed not to grow under countable unions. Let us give a more dynamical application that uses the intertwining property in a crucial way.

Corollary 1.3. — If X is compact and $\varphi: X \to X$ is a continuous map with positive topological entropy, then $\varphi_{\#}$ has positive metric mean dimension. More precisely

$$\operatorname{mdim}_{M}(\varphi_{\#}, W_{p}) \geqslant p \frac{\operatorname{h_{top}}(\varphi)}{\log 2}.$$

Metric mean dimension is a metric invariant of dynamical systems that refines entropy for infinite-entropy ones, introduced by Lindenstrauss and Weiss $[\mathbf{LW00}]$ in link with mean dimension, a topological invariant. The definition of \mathbf{mdim}_{M} is recalled in Section 6.3.

Note that the constant in Corollary 1.3 is not optimal in the case of multiplicative maps $\times d$ acting on the circle: in [**Klo10b**] we prove the lower bound p(d-1) (instead of $p\log_2 d$ here).

It is a natural question to ask whether the (topological) mean dimension of $\varphi_{\#}$ is positive as soon as φ has positive entropy. To determine this at least for some map φ would be interesting.

1.2.2. Embedding Hilbert cubes. — Since embedding powers cannot be enough to estimate critical parameters, we shall embed Hilbert cubes in Wasserstein spaces. From now on, we restrict to quadratic cost (similar results probably hold for other exponents, up to replacing Hilbert cubes by ℓ^p analogues).

Theorem 1.4. — Given any $\lambda \in (0,1/3)$ and any compact metric space X, there is a continuous map $g: \mathrm{HC}(X,(\lambda^n)) \to \mathscr{W}_2(X)$ that is sub-Lipschitz: for some C > 0,

$$W_2(g(\bar{x}), g(\bar{y})) \geqslant \frac{d(\bar{x}, \bar{y})}{C}.$$

The embedding we construct here is not bi-Lipschitz, but this does not matter to get lower bounds on critical parameters.

For rectifiable enough spaces, we can use the self-similarity of the Euclidean space to get a much stronger statement.

Theorem 1.5. — Let X be any Polish metric space that admits a bi-Lipschitz embedding of a Euclidean cube I^d (e.g. any manifold of dimension d), and let

 (a_n) be any $\ell^{\frac{2d}{d+2}}$ sequence of positive numbers. Then there is a bi-Lipschitz embedding of $HC(I^d,(a_n))$ into $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$.

The embedding theorems 1.4 and 1.5 have consequences in terms of critical parameters (defined precisely in part I).

Proposition 1.6. — If X is any compact metric space of positive Hausdorff dimension, then $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ has at least intermediate size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{I}} \mathscr{W}_{2}(X) \geqslant 2, \quad \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{I}_{2}} \mathscr{W}_{2}(X) \geqslant \frac{\dim X}{2 \log \frac{1}{3}}.$$

This estimate is very far from being sharp for many spaces, but it has the advantage to be completely general.

The second embedding result gives a much more precise statement when X is sufficiently regular.

Theorem 1.7. — If X is a compact d-dimensional manifold (or any compact space having upper-Minkowski dimension d and admitting a bi-Lipschitz embedding of I^d), then $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ has power-exponential size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} \mathscr{W}_2(X) = d.$$

The upper and lower bound are proved independently under partial hypotheses, see Propositions 7.3 and 7.4. A direct consequence of Theorem 1.7 is that if X, X' are d, d'-dimensional manifolds with d > d', then there exists no bi-Lipschitz embedding from $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ to $\mathcal{W}_2(X')$.

A surprise about the proof is that the methods for the upper and the lower bound are very different and can both seem quite rough (see the proofs in section 7.3), but they nevertheless give the same order of magnitude. The fact that the power-exponential critical parameter of the Wasserstein space coincide with the dimension of the original space in the case of manifolds is an indication that the power-exponential scale is relevant.

It is an open problem to find a relevant "uniform" probability measure on $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ (see [vRS09]). Knowing the critical parameter of a space, the Carathéodory construction provides a Hausdorff-like measure, which unfortunately need not be finite positive. One could hope to find a function such that the Carathéodory construction leads to a finite positive measure, which would then be a natural candidate to uniformity, in particular because the construction depends only on the geometry of the space. Our result, while far from answering the question, at least gives an idea of the infinitesimal behavior of any such candidate: the desired function should be very roughly of the order of magnitude of $r \mapsto \exp(-(1/r)^d)$ when X is a d-manifold. However, it is unlikely that the Carathéodory construction can be used to produce such a measure. In the quite similar case of the space of closed subset of the interval,

endowed with the Hausdorff metric, it has indeed been proved [Boa73] that no function yields a Hausdorff like measure that is both positive and σ -finite. It would be interesting to determine whether this result holds in the case of Wasserstein spaces.

1.3. Largeness of closed subset spaces. — The same methods used on Wasserstein spaces can also be used to study the space of closed subsets of a compact metric space. We shall end the paper in section 8 with the proof of the following result.

Theorem 1.8. — Let X be a compact d-manifold (or any compact space having upper-Minkowski dimension d and admitting a bi-Lipschitz embedding of I^d). Then the space $\mathscr{C}(X)$ of closed subsets of X, endowed with the Hausdorff metric, has power-exponential size and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}}\mathscr{C}(X) = d.$$

This result should be compared with those of Boardman [Boa73] and Goodey [Goo77], which together give a refinement of Theorem 1.8 when X = [0, 1], and of McClure [McC97] which applies to self-similar subsets of Euclidean space that satisfy a strong separation property.

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PART I

A GENERALIZATION OF HAUSDORFF DIMENSION: CRITICAL PARAMETERS

2. Carathéodory's construction and scales

In this section we consider metric spaces X, Y (assumed to be Polish, that is complete and separable, to avoid any measurability issue) and we use the letters A, B to denote subsets of X.

2.1. Carathéodory's construction of measures. — The starting point of our invariant is a classical construction due to Carathéodory (see [Mat95] for references and proofs) that we quickly review. The idea is to count the

number of elements in coverings of A by small sets E_i , weighting each set by a function of its diameter.

Let $f:[0,T)\to[0,+\infty)$ be a continuous non-decreasing function such that f(0)=0. Given a subset A of X, one defines a Borel measure by

$$\Lambda_f(A) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \inf \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(\operatorname{diam} E_i) \,\middle|\, A \subset \cup E_i, \, \operatorname{diam} E_i \leqslant \delta, \, E_i \, \operatorname{closed} \right\}$$

where the limit exists since the infimum is monotone. If $f(x) = x^s$, Λ_f is the s-dimensional Hausdorff measure (up to normalization).

We shall say that (E_i) is a closed covering of A if it is a covering by closed elements, and a δ -covering if all E_i have diameter at most δ .

2.2. Scales and critical parameters. — We shall perform Carathéodory's construction for a family of functions, and we need some conditions to ensure that a sharp phase transition occurs.

Definition 2.1. — A scale is a family \mathscr{F} of continuous non-decreasing functions $f_s: [0, T_s) \to [0, +\infty)$ such that $f_s(0) = 0$, where the parameter s runs over an interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$, and which satisfies the following separation property:

$$\forall t > s \in I, \ \forall C \geqslant 1, \quad f_t(Cr) = o_{r \to 0}(f_s(r)).$$

The following families are the scales we shall use below. The *polynomial* scale (or dimensional scale) is

$$\mathscr{D} := (r \mapsto r^s)_{s \in (0, +\infty)}$$

and its critical parameter (to be defined below) is Hausdorff dimension. The *intermediate scales* (or power-log-exponential scales) are divided into a *coarse* scale

$$\mathscr{I} := \left(r \mapsto e^{-\left(\log \frac{1}{r}\right)^s}\right)_{s \in [1, +\infty)}$$

and, for each $\sigma \in [1, +\infty)$ a fine scale

$$\mathscr{I}_{\sigma} := \left(r \mapsto e^{-s\left(\log \frac{1}{r}\right)^{\sigma}}\right)_{s \in (0, +\infty)}$$

note that $\mathscr{I}_1 = \mathscr{D}$. The power-exponential scale is

$$\mathscr{P} := \left(r \mapsto e^{-\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^s} \right)_{s \in (0, +\infty)}$$

The parameter s = 1 corresponds to exponential size; while one could consider giving a more precise scale in this case, the family $(r \mapsto \exp(-s/r))_s$ does not define one: it does not satisfy the separation property, and would lead to a critical parameter that is not bi-Lipschitz invariant.

Consider a scale $\mathscr{F} = (f_s)_{s \in I}$ and a subset A of X. We have, like in the case of Hausdorff measures and with the same proof (using the separation property only with C = 1):

Lemma 2.2. — For all parameters $t > s \in I$, if $\Lambda_{f_t}(A) > 0$ then $\Lambda_{f_s}(A) = +\infty$.

This leads to the equalities in the following.

Definition 2.3. — The *critical parameter* of A with respect to the scale \mathscr{F} is the number

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} A := \sup\{s \in I | \Lambda_{f_s}(A) = +\infty\}$$

$$= \sup\{s \in I | \Lambda_{f_s}(A) > 0\}$$

$$= \inf\{s \in I | \Lambda_{f_s}(A) = 0\}$$

$$= \inf\{s \in I | \Lambda_{f_s}(A) < +\infty\}$$

Note that the critical parameter belongs to the closure of I in \mathbb{R} .

2.3. Basic properties of the critical parameter. — The critical parameter defined by any scale \mathscr{F} shares many properties with the Hausdorff dimension.

Proposition 2.4. — The following properties hold:

- (monotonicity) if $A \subset B \subset X$, then $\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} A \leqslant \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} B$,
- (countable union) for any countable family of sets $A_i \subset X$,

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(\cup A_i) = \sup_i \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} A_i,$$

- (Lipschitz monotonicity) If there is a sub-Lipschitz map from X to another metric space Y, then

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} X \leqslant \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} Y.$$

 (Lipschitz invariance) if there is a bi-Lipschitz map from X onto another metric space Y, then

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{R}} X = \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{R}} Y.$$

Proof. — The monotonicity and countable union properties are straigthforward since Λ_{f_s} is a measure for all s. The Lipschitz monotonicity and Lipschitz invariance are proved just like the invariance of Hausdorff dimension, using the separation property.

More precisely, let $g: X \to Y$ be a sub-Lipschitz map: for some D > 0 and all $x, x' \in X$,

$$d(g(x), g(x')) \geqslant Dd(x, x')$$

Given any countable closed $D\delta$ -covering (F_i) of Y, the sets $E_i = \overline{g^{-1}(F_i)}$ are closed, of diameter at most D^{-1} diam $F_i \leq \delta$ and cover X. By the separation property, given any s < t in the parameter set of \mathscr{F} , there is a δ_0 such that for all $r \in (0, \delta_0)$ we have $f_t(D^{-1}r) \leq f_s(r)$. If $\Lambda_{f_s}(Y) = 0$, then we can find coverings (F_i) of Y of arbitrarily low diameter making $\sum f_s(\text{diam } F_i)$ arbitrarily low. It follows that the corresponding coverings (E_i) of X make $\sum f_t(\text{diam } E_i)$ arbitrarily low, so that $\Lambda_{f_t}(X) = 0$. Letting s and t approach the critical parameter of Y shows that

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} Y \geqslant \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} X$$

If there is a bi-Lipschitz equivalence between X and Y, we get the other inequality by symmetry. \Box

3. Estimations tools

Let us give two tools to estimate the critical parameter of a given set. Both are direct analogues of standard tools used for Hausdorff dimension. We consider here a fixed Polish metric space X and a given scale $\mathscr{F} = (f_s)_{s \in I}$.

3.1. Upper bounds via growth of coverings. — The most evident way to measure the size of a compact set A is to consider the growth of the minimal number $N(A, \varepsilon)$ of radius ε balls needed to cover A when $\varepsilon \to 0$. If $N(A, \varepsilon)$ is roughly $(1/\varepsilon)^d$, more precisely if

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\log N(A, \varepsilon)}{\log(1/\varepsilon)} = d$$

then one says that X has Minkowski dimension (or M-dimension for short, also called box dimension) equal to d. The limit need not exist, and one defines the upper and lower M-dimensions by replacing it by an infimum or supremum limit. Equivalently, one can define these dimensions by

$$\overline{\mathbf{M}}\text{-}\dim(A) = \inf\left\{s > 0 \left| \limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} N(A, \varepsilon)\varepsilon^s < +\infty\right.\right\}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{M}}\text{-}\dim(A) = \inf\left\{s > 0 \left| \liminf_{\varepsilon \to 0} N(A, \varepsilon)\varepsilon^s < +\infty\right.\right\}$$

which is much more easily generalized to arbitrary scales.

Definition 3.1. — The lower and upper Minkowski critical parameter of a compact set $A \subset X$ with respect to the scale \mathscr{F} are defined as

$$\overline{\operatorname{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \ := \ \inf\left\{s \in I \, \middle| \, \limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} N(A,\varepsilon) f_s(\varepsilon) < +\infty\right\}$$

$$\underline{\operatorname{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \ := \ \inf\left\{s \in I \, \middle| \, \liminf_{\varepsilon \to 0} N(A,\varepsilon) f_s(\varepsilon) < +\infty\right\}$$

It is clear from the definition that $\underline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \leqslant \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(A)$, and there are several other equivalent ways to define the Minkowski critical parameters, for example

$$\underline{\mathbf{M}}\operatorname{-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) = \sup \left\{ s \in I \, \middle| \, \liminf_{\varepsilon \to 0} N(A, \varepsilon) f_s(\varepsilon) > 0 \right\}$$

The following result enables one to get upper bounds on the critical parameter.

Proposition 3.2. — The following inequality always holds:

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \leqslant \underline{\mathrm{M}}\operatorname{-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A).$$

Proof. — For all positive ε , there is a covering (B_i) of A by $N(A, \varepsilon)$ balls of radius ε . Given any $t > s > \underline{M}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(A)$ we have

$$\sum f_t(\operatorname{diam} B_i) \leqslant N(A,\varepsilon) f_t(2\varepsilon) \leqslant N(A,\varepsilon) f_s(\varepsilon)$$

as soon as ε is small enough. Passing to an infimum limit, we get $\Lambda_{f_t}(A) = 0$ and thus $\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}} A \leqslant t$.

Unfortunately, there is no way to have a lower bound of the critical parameter in terms of these Minkowski versions. The classical counter-example is the set $\{0, 1, 1/2, 1/3, \ldots\}$ that has Minkowski dimension 1/2 but is countable, thus has Hausdorff dimension 0. This is one of the reasons to introduce Hausdorff dimension and more general critical parameter: Minkowski critical parameters can grow significantly under countable union.

They however share the other properties of critical parameters.

Proposition 3.3. — The upper and lower Minkowski critical parameter satisfy the monotonicity and Lipschitz invariance properties:

 $-if A \subset B \subset X$, then

$$\underline{\mathbf{M}}$$
-crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \leqslant \underline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(B)$ and $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \leqslant \overline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit $_{\mathscr{F}}(B)$,

- if there is a bi-Lipschitz equivalence $A \rightarrow B$, then

$$\operatorname{M-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) = \operatorname{M-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(B) \quad and \quad \overline{\operatorname{M-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}}(A) = \overline{\operatorname{M-crit}_{\mathscr{F}}}(B).$$

We do not give the easy proof of this result, but note that for the bi-Lipschitz invariance, again one needs the full power of the separation property for scales.

In order to compute $\underline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit and $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ -crit, one can also use packings: denoting by $P(A,\varepsilon)$ the maximal number of points in A that are pairwise at distance at least ε , we indeed have $N(A,2\varepsilon) \leq P(A,\varepsilon)$ and $P(A,2\varepsilon) \leq N(A,\varepsilon)$. Here, once again, the strong separation property is vital to ensure that the factor 2 is harmless.

3.2. Lower bounds via Frostman's lemma. — Finding a large packing of balls in A is not sufficient to bound the critical parameter from below but, as for the Hausdorff dimension, a close analogue that is sufficient is to exhibit a measure with small growth.

Proposition 3.4 (Frostman's Lemma). — For all Borel subset A of X, if there is a Borel probability measure μ concentrated on A and a positive constant C such that for all $x \in A$ and all r > 0

$$\mu(B(x,r)) \leqslant Cf_s(r)$$

then $\Lambda_{f_s}(A) > 0$ (and in particular $\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{F}}(A) \geqslant s$). Moreover the converse holds.

The proof can be found for example in [Mat95]. The difficult part is the converse, while the very useful direct part is straightforward.

4. Critical parameters of Hilbert cubes

Let us now use the previous tools to compute critical parameters for the Hilbert cubes defined in the introduction. Here X is assumed to be compact.

The topology of a Hilbert cube $\mathrm{HC}(X;\bar{a})$ is the product topology, in particular it is compact. It need not be infinite dimensional in general; for example if X is finite and \bar{a} is geometric, then $\mathrm{HC}(X,\bar{a})$ is a finite-dimensional, self-similar Cantor set.

We shall estimate critical parameters for two different kind of coefficients \bar{a} ; in both cases the upper bound is obtained with the same method, so let us give a technical lemma to avoid repetition.

Lemma 4.1. — Let (X,d) be a compact metric space of finite, positive upper Minkowski dimension s and let $\bar{a} = (a_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be an ℓ^2 sequence of positive numbers. If $L:(0,1) \to \mathbb{N}^*$ is a non-increasing function such that

$$\sum_{n>L(\varepsilon)} a_n^2 \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon^2}{(\operatorname{diam} X)^2}$$

then for all $\eta > 0$ and all ε small enough compared to η , we have

$$(1) \log N(\mathrm{HC}(X,\bar{a}),\varepsilon) \leqslant (s+\eta) \left(\log \prod_{n=1}^{L(\varepsilon/2)} a_n + \frac{1}{2} \log L(\frac{\varepsilon}{2})! + L(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}) \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right).$$

Proof. — Let $s' = s + \eta$. By definition of upper M-dimension, there is a constant C such that for all $\varepsilon < 1$, $N(X,\varepsilon)\varepsilon^{s'} \leqslant C$. We shall construct a covering of the Hilbert cube from coverings at different scales of X. Denoting by X_{a_n} the space X endowed with the metric a_nd , we have $N(X_{a_n},\varepsilon) = 0$

 $N(X, \varepsilon/a_n)$, thus for all ε smaller than $\max a_n$ and each n, we can find a family of $C(2Ca_n\sqrt{n}\log n/\varepsilon)^{s'}$ points $(x_n^i)_i$ such that every $x \in X_{a_n}$ is at distance at most $\varepsilon/(2C\sqrt{n}\log n)$ from one of them. The use of the sequence $(\sqrt{n}\log n)$ will become clear in a moment; what is important is that it increases not too fast, but its inverse is ℓ^2 .

Now any point $(x_1, x_2,...)$ in $HC(X, \bar{a})$ is at distance at most $\varepsilon/2$ from $(x_1,...,x_{L(\varepsilon/2)},0,0,...)$, which is itself at distance at most

$$\frac{\varepsilon}{2C} \left(\sum \frac{1}{n \log^2 n} \right)^{1/2} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

(up to enlarging C if needed) from one of the points $(x_1^{i_1}, \dots, x_{L(\varepsilon/2)}^{i_L(\varepsilon/2)}, 0, \dots)$. We get

$$N(\mathrm{HC}(X,\bar{a}),\varepsilon) \leqslant \prod_{n=1}^{L(\varepsilon/2)} C\left(\frac{2Ca_n\sqrt{n}\log n}{\varepsilon}\right)^{s'}$$

and we only have left to take the logarithm; two terms can be removed up to doubling η : one proportional to $L(\varepsilon/2)$, absorbed by the $L(\varepsilon/2)\log 1/\varepsilon$ term, and one proportional to $\sum_{1}^{L(\varepsilon/2)}\log\log n$, absorbed by the $\log(L(\varepsilon/2)!)$ term. Note that this last comparison is of course very inefficient, but it avoids adding a $L(\varepsilon/2)\log\log L(\varepsilon/2)$ term to the formula and the $\log(L(\varepsilon/2)!)$ term must be present anyway due to the presence of \sqrt{n} in the product above.

When \bar{a} decays exponentially, the Hilbert cube has intermediate size and its fine critical parameter can be determined.

Proposition 4.2. — Let X be any compact metric space and let $\lambda \in (0,1)$. We have

$$\frac{\dim X}{2\log\frac{1}{\lambda}}\leqslant \mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{I}_2}\operatorname{HC}(X,(\lambda^n))\leqslant \overline{\operatorname{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{I}_2}\operatorname{HC}(X,(\lambda^n))\leqslant \frac{\overline{\operatorname{M}}\text{-}\dim X}{2\log\frac{1}{\lambda}}$$

In particular, if X has positive and finite Hausdorff and upper Minkowski dimension, then

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{I}}\operatorname{HC}(X,(\lambda^n))=2$$

In particular, when $0 < \overline{\mathrm{M}}$ -dim $X = \dim X < +\infty$ the 2-fine intermediate critical parameter of the Hilbert cube is equal to $\dim X/(2\log 1/\lambda)$.

Proof. — We denote by H the generalized Hilbert cube under study. Note that both inequalities are trivial when $\dim X = 0$ and, respectively, $\overline{\mathrm{M}}$ -dim $X = +\infty$. We therefore assume otherwise.

Using the notation Lemma 4.1, one can choose L such that

$$L(\varepsilon/2) \sim \frac{\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}{\log \frac{1}{\lambda}}$$

where $f \sim g$ means asymptotic equivalence: f = g + o(g). Then in (1) the second term is negligible (of the order of $\log 1/\varepsilon \log \log 1/\varepsilon$) compared to the first and third ones, and for all $s > \overline{\mathrm{M}}$ -dim X we get when ε is small enough (up to invoking the lemma for a slightly smaller s):

$$\log N(H, \varepsilon) \leqslant s \left(-\frac{\left(\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^2}{2\log \frac{1}{\lambda}} + \frac{\left(\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^2}{\log \frac{1}{\lambda}} \right)$$

so that $\overline{\mathrm{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{I}}H\leqslant 2$ and $\overline{\mathrm{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{crit}_{\mathscr{I}_2}H\leqslant \overline{\mathrm{M}}\text{-}\mathrm{dim}\,X/(2\log 1/\lambda).$

For all $0 < t < \dim X$, there is a Borel probability measure ν on X such that $\nu(B(x,r)) \leqslant Cr^t$ for all r. Such a measure exists by Frostman's lemma since the t-dimensional Hausdorff measure of X is infinite, hence positive. Now $\mu := \otimes_{n=1}^{+\infty} \nu$ is a Borel probability measure on $\mathrm{HC}(X,(\lambda^n)) \simeq X^{\mathbb{N}}$, and for all r > 0, all functions $M : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{N}$ and all \bar{x} we have

$$B(\bar{x},r) \subset \prod_{n=1}^{M(r)} B_{\lambda^n}(x_n,r) \times X \times X \times \dots$$

where $B_{\lambda^n}(x_n, r)$ is the ball in the scaled space X_{λ^n} , and is therefore equal as a set to $B(x_n, r\lambda^{-n})$. This ball has ν -mesure at most $C(r\lambda^{-n})^t$ so that we get

$$\log \mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leqslant t \left(-M(r) \log \frac{1}{r} + \frac{M(r)^2}{2} \log \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) + O(M(r))$$

The optimal choice is then to take

$$M(r) \sim \frac{\log \frac{1}{r}}{\log \frac{1}{\lambda}}$$

so that

$$\log \mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leqslant -\frac{t}{2\log\frac{1}{\lambda}} \left(\log\frac{1}{r}\right)^2 + O\left(\log\frac{1}{r}\right)$$

Using Frostman's lemma and letting t go to dim X we get

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{I}} H \geqslant \dim X/(2\log 1/\lambda)$$

and in particular crit $\mathcal{J}H\geqslant 2$.

When \bar{a} decays polynomially, the corresponding Hilbert cube over any space of positive and finite dimension has power-exponential size, mostly independant of the geometry of X. Note that we shall need more precision than before when using Frostman's lemma.

Proposition 4.3. — Let X be any compact metric space and let $\alpha > 1/2$. If X has positive Hausdorff dimension, then

$$\frac{2}{2\alpha - 1} \leqslant \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} \operatorname{HC}(X, (n^{-\alpha}))$$

and if X has finite upper Minkowski dimension then

$$\overline{\mathrm{M}}$$
-crit \mathscr{P} $\mathrm{HC}(X,(n^{-\alpha})) \leqslant \frac{2}{2\alpha - 1}$.

In particular, when X has positive and finite Hausdorff and upper Minkowski dimensions, the power-exponential critical parameter of $HC(X, (n^{-\alpha}))$ is equal to $2/(2\alpha - 1)$.

Proof. — Using the notation of Lemma 4.1, L can be chosen such that there are constants C < D satisfying

$$C\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{2\alpha-1}} \leqslant L(\varepsilon) \leqslant D\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{2\alpha-1}}.$$

For all s greater than the upper M-dimension of X and all small enough ε we have (recalling that according to Stirling's formula, $\log m! = m \log m + O(m)$)

$$\log N(H, \varepsilon) \leqslant s(D - C) \left(\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\frac{2}{2\alpha - 1}} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

For all $t > 2/(2\alpha - 1)$, the quantity $N(H, \varepsilon) \exp(-(1/\varepsilon)^t)$ is therefore bounded. It follows that

$$\overline{\mathrm{M}}$$
-crit \mathscr{P} $\mathrm{HC}(X,(n^{-\alpha})) \leqslant \frac{2}{2\alpha - 1}$.

To get the lower bound, we start by assuming dim X > 1 (otherwise, take $p > 1/\dim X$ so that dim $X^p > 1$ and observe that there is a bi-Lipschitz embedding from $HC(X^p, (n^{-\alpha}))$ to $HC(X, (n^{-\alpha}))$.

From Frostman's lemma there is a non-zero Borel probability measure ν on X such that $\nu(B(x,r)) \leqslant Cr$ for all r. As before we define $\mu := \otimes_{n=1}^{+\infty} \nu$ which is a Borel probability measure on $H = \mathrm{HC}(X,(n^{-\alpha})) \simeq X^{\mathbb{N}}$. We want to precisely estimate the μ -measure of small balls in H. Fix a point $\bar{x} \in H$. For convenience, we introduce the notation $\bar{a} = (n^{-\alpha})_n$, $\bar{a}^k = (n^{-\alpha})_{n \geqslant k}$ and we define similarly \bar{x}^k . Let also $S_{a_n}(x,r)$ be the sphere of center x and radius r in X_{a_n} . We can write

$$B(\bar{x},r) = \bigcup_{0 \le r_1 \le r} S_{a_1}(x_1, r_1) \times B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - r_1^2})$$

where the right factor is a ball of $HC(X, \bar{a}^2)$. Denoting by σ the push-forward of the measure ν by the map $x \mapsto d_{a_1}(x_1, x)$, we have

$$\nu(B(x_1,r)) = \int_0^r \sigma(dr_1)$$

and by Fubini's theorem

$$\mu(B(\bar{x},r)) = \int_0^r \mu\left(B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - r_1^2})\right) \sigma(dr_1)$$

We know that $\int_0^r \sigma(dr_1) \leq Cr/a_1$ for all r > 0, thus there exists a coupling measure Π on $\mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+$ supported on $\{(u,v)|u \geq v\}$ such that its first marginal is equal to σ and its second marginal is lesser than or equal to $(C/a_1)dv$ (with dv the Lebesgue measure). One indeed can take for Π the increasing rearrangement between these two measures (see e.g. [Vil09] page 7 for a definition). Using that the left factor in the following integrand is non-increasing, we get

$$\mu(B(\bar{x},r)) = \int_0^r \mu\left(B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - r_1^2})\right) \sigma(dr_1)$$

$$= \int_0^r \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \mu\left(B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - r_1^2})\right) \Pi(dr_1 dv)$$

$$\leq \int_0^r \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \mu\left(B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - v^2})\right) \Pi(dr_1 dv)$$

$$\leq \int_0^r \mu\left(B(\bar{x}^2, \sqrt{r^2 - v^2})\right) (C/a_1) dv$$

Assume, given an integer M, that there is a constant $C_M^{\bar{a}}$ such that $\mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leq C_M^{\bar{a}} r^M$ for all r. Then, using a change of variable $v = r \cos \theta$, the above inequality yields

$$\mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leqslant C_M^{\bar{a}^2} \frac{C}{a_1} \left(\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin^{M+1}\theta \, d\theta \right) r^{M+1}$$

We know that the Wallis integral is asymptotically equivalent to $\sqrt{\pi/2(M+1)}$, so that there is a positive constant D depending on C such that

$$\mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leqslant \frac{D^M}{\sqrt{M!} \prod_{i=1}^{M} a_n} r^M$$

Defining an integer valued function M such that $M(r) \sim r^{-\beta}$, we get

$$\log \mu(B(\bar{x},r)) \leqslant \left(\beta(\alpha - \frac{1}{2}) - 1\right) M(r) \log \frac{1}{r} + O(M(r))$$

so that whenever $\beta < 2/(2\alpha - 1)$, we have

$$\log \mu(B(\bar{x}, r)) \leqslant -E\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^{\beta} \log \frac{1}{r}$$

for some positive constant E, and we deduce from Frostman's lemma that $\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} H \geqslant 2/(2\alpha - 1)$.

Corollary 1.1 from the introduction is a direct consequence of the above result.

Proof of Corollary 1.1. — Assume there is a bi-Lipschitz embedding from the Hilbert cube $HC(X, (n^{-\alpha}))$ to $HC(Y, (n^{-\beta}))$ where X has positive Hausdorff dimension and Y has finite upper Minkowski dimension. Then by Proposition 4.3 and the monotonicity property, we have

$$\frac{2}{2\alpha-1}\leqslant \operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}}\operatorname{HC}(X,(n^{-\alpha}))\leqslant \overline{\operatorname{M}}\operatorname{-crit}_{\mathscr{P}}\operatorname{HC}(Y,(n^{-\beta}))\leqslant \frac{2}{2\beta-1}$$
 which implies $\beta\leqslant\alpha$.

PART II LARGENESS OF WASSERSTEIN SPACES

5. Wasserstein spaces

For a detailed introduction on optimal transport, the interested reader can for example consult [Vil03], or [San10] for a more concise overview. Optimal transport is about moving a given amount of material from one distribution to another with the least total cost, where the cost to move a unit of mass between two points is given by a cost function. Here the cost function is related to a metric, and optimal transport gives a metric on a space of measures. Let us give a few precise definitions and the properties we shall need.

Given an exponent $p \in [1, \infty)$, if (X, d) is a general metric space, always assumed to be Polish (complete separable), and endowed with its Borel σ -algebra, its L^p Wasserstein space is the set $\mathscr{W}_p(X)$ of (Borel) probability measures μ on X whose p-th moment is finite:

$$\int d(x_0, x)^p \, \mu(dx) < \infty \qquad \text{for some, hence all } x_0 \in X$$

endowed with the following metric: given $\mu, \nu \in \mathscr{W}_p(X)$ one sets

$$W_p(\mu, \nu) = \left(\inf_{\Pi} \int_{X \times X} d(x, y)^p \, \Pi(dxdy)\right)^{1/p}$$

where the infimum is over all probability measures Π on $X \times X$ that project to μ on the first factor and to ν on the second one. Such a measure is called a transport plan between μ and ν , and is said to be optimal when it achieves the infimum. The function d^p is called the cost function, and the value of $\int_{X\times X} d(x,y)^p \,\Pi(dxdy)$ is the *total cost* of Π .

In this setting, an optimal transport plan always exists. Note that when X is compact, the set $\mathcal{W}_p(X)$ is equal to the set $\mathcal{P}(X)$ of all probability measures on X and W_p metrizes the weak topology.

The name "transport plan" is suggestive: it is a way to describe what amount of mass is transported from one region to another.

One very useful tool to study optimal transport is cyclical monontonicity. Given a cost function $c = d^p$ here) on $X \times X$, one says that a set $S \subset X \times X$ is (c-)cyclically monotone if for all families of pairs $(x_0, y_0), \ldots, (x_k, y_k) \in S$, one has

$$c(x_0, y_0) + \dots + c(x_k, y_k) \le c(x_0, y_1) + \dots + c(x_{k-1}, y_k) + c(x_k, y_0)$$

in words, one cannot reduce the total cost to move a unit amount of mass from the x_i to the y_i by permuting the target points. A transport plan Π is said to be cyclically monotone if its support is. Using continuity of the cost we use here, it is easy to see that an optimal transport plan must be cyclically monotone. It is a non-trivial result that the reciprocal is also true, see [Vil03].

6. Embedding powers

This section is logically independent of the rest of the article. We prove Theorem 1.2 and consider its optimality and its dynamical consequence.

6.1. Proof of Theorem 1.2. — The first power of X embeds isometrically by $x \to \delta_x$ where δ_x is the Dirac mass at a point. To construct an embedding f of a higher power of X into its Wasserstein space, the idea is to encode a tuple by a measure supported on its elements, without adding any extra symmetry: one should be able to distinguish $f(a, b, \ldots)$ from $f(b, a, \ldots)$. Define the map

$$f: X^k \to \mathscr{W}_p(X)$$

 $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \mapsto \alpha \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2^i} \delta_{x_i}$

where $\alpha = 1/(1-2^{-k})$ is a normalizing constant. This choice of masses moreover ensures that different subsets of the tuple have different masses. This map obviously has the intertwining property since $\varphi_{\#}(\delta_x) = \delta_{\varphi(x)}$.

Lemma 6.1. — The map f is $(\alpha/2)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ -Lipschitz when X^k is endowed with the metric d_p .

Proof. — There is an obvious transport plan from an image $f(\bar{x})$ to another $f(\bar{y})$, given by $\alpha \sum_i 2^{-i} \delta_{x_i} \otimes \delta_{y_i}$. Its L^p cost is

$$\alpha \sum_{i} 2^{-i} d(x_i, y_i)^p \leqslant \alpha/2 \sum_{i} d(x_i, y_i)^p$$

so that $W_p(f(\bar{x}), f(\bar{y})) \leq (\alpha/2)^{\frac{1}{p}} d_p(\bar{x}, \bar{y}).$

Our goal is now to bound $W_p(f(\bar{x}), f(\bar{y}))$ from below. The very formulation of the Wasserstein metric makes it more difficult to give lower bounds than upper bounds. One classic way around this issue is to use a dual formulation (Kantorovich duality) that expresses the minimal cost in terms of a supremum. Here we give a more direct, combinatorial approach based on cyclical monotonicity.

The cost of all transport plans below are computed with respect to the cost d^p , where p is fixed.

6.1.1. Labelled graphs. — To describe transport plans, we shall use labelled graphs, defined as tuples $G = (V, E, m, m_0, m_1)$ where V is a finite subset of X, E is a set of pairs $(x,y) \in V^2$ where $x \neq y$ (so that G is an oriented graph without loops), m is a function $E \to [0,1]$ and m_0, m_1 are functions $V \to [0,1]$. An element of V will usually be denoted by x if it is thought of as a starting point, y if it is thought of as a final point, and v if no such assumption is made.

To any transport plan between finitely supported measures, one can associate a labelled graph as follows.

Definition 6.2. — Let μ, ν be probability measures supported on finite sets $A,B\subset X$ and let Π be any transport plan from μ to ν . We define a labelled graph G^{Π} by: $V^{\Pi} = A \cup B$,

$$\begin{split} E^{\Pi} &= \operatorname{supp} \Pi \setminus \Delta = \big\{ (x,y) \in X^2 \, \big| \, x \neq y \text{ and } \Pi(\{x,y\}) > 0 \big\}, \\ m^{\Pi}(x,y) &= \Pi(\{x,y\}), \, m^{\Pi}_0(x) = \mu(\{x\}) \text{ and } m^{\Pi}_1(y) = \nu(\{y\}). \end{split}$$

In other words, the graph encodes the initial and final measures and the amount of mass moved from any given point in supp μ to any given point in $\operatorname{supp} \nu$. The transport plan itself can be retrieved from its graph; for example its cost is

$$c_p(\Pi) = \sum_{e \in E} m^{\Pi}(e) d(e^-, e^+)^p$$

where e^- and e^+ are the starting and ending points of the edge e.

Not every labelled graph encodes a transport plan between two measures. We say that G is admissible if:

- $-\sum_{V} m_{0}(v) = \sum_{V} m_{1}(v) = 1,$ for all $e \in E$, m(e) > 0,
 for all $v \in V$, $m_{0}(v) + \sum_{e=(x,v)\in E} m(e) \sum_{e=(v,y)\in E} m(e) = m_{1}(v)$ (this is mass invariance), $\sum_{e=(x,v)\in E} m(e) \leqslant m_{1}(v)$ and $\sum_{e=(v,y)\in E} m(e) \leqslant m_{2}(v)$

A labelled graph is admissible if and only if it is the graph of some transport plan. The next steps of the proof shall give some information on the graphs of optimal plans.

6.1.2. The graph of some optimal plan is a forest. — Let us introduce some notation related to a given labelled graph G. A path is a tuple of edges $P = (e_1, \ldots, e_l)$ such that e_i has an endpoint in common with e_{i+1} for all i. If moreover $e_i^+ = e_{i+1}^-$ holds for all i, we say that P is an oriented path. We define the unitary cost of P as the cost of a unit mass travelling along P, that is $c(P) = \sum_{i=1}^{l} d(e_i^-, e_i^+)^p$, and the flow of P as the amount of mass travelling along P, that is $\phi(P) = \min_i m(e_i)$. Cycles and oriented cycles are defined in an obvious, similar way; a graph is a forest if it contains no cycle.

Lemma 6.3. — If Π is an optimal plan between any two finitely supported measures μ, ν , then G^{Π} contains no oriented cycle.

Proof. — This is a direct consequence of the cyclic monotonicity of optimal plans: if there were points v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n in V^{Π} such that $v_n = v_1$ and $m(i) := m^{\Pi}(v_i, v_{i+1}) > 0$ for all i < n, then by subtracting the minimal value of m_i from each of them one would get an new admissible labelled graph with $m_0 = m_0^{\Pi}$ and $m_1 = m_1^{\Pi}$ and cost less than the cost of G^{Π} . This new graph would give a new transport plan from μ to ν , cheaper than Π .

An optimal plan can a priori have non-oriented cycles, but up to changing the plan (without changing its cost), we can assume it does not.

Lemma 6.4. — Between any two finitely supported measures μ, ν , there is an optimal plan Π such that G^{Π} is a forest.

Proof. — Let Π be any optimal plan from μ to ν , and let $G_0 = G^{\Pi}$ be its graph.

A non-oriented cycle is determined by two sets of vertices x_1, \ldots, x_n and y_1, \ldots, y_n and two sets of oriented paths $P_i : x_i \to y_i$, $Q_i : x_i \to y_{i+1}$ where $y_{n+1} := y_1$, see Figure 1.

Consider a minimal non-oriented cycle of G_0 , so that no two paths among all P_i 's and Q_i 's share an edge.

One can construct a new admissible labelled graph G_1 , with the same vertex labels m_0 and m_1 as G, by adding a small ε to all m(e) where e appears in some P_i , and subtracting the same ε from all m(e) where e appears in some Q_i . This operation adds ε to $\phi(P_i)$ and $-\varepsilon$ to $\phi(Q_i)$, thus it adds $\varepsilon \sum_i c(P_i) - c(Q_i)$ to the cost of Π .

Since Π is optimal, one cannot reduce its cost by this operation. This implies that $\sum_i c(P_i) - c(Q_i) = 0$. By operating as above with ε equal to plus or minus the minimal value of all m(e) where e appears in a P_i or in a Q_i , one designs the wanted new admissible graph G_1 .

Now, G_1 has its edge set included in the edge set of G, with at least one less oriented cycle. By repeating this operation, one constructs an admissible labelled graph G without cycle, that has the same total cost and the same

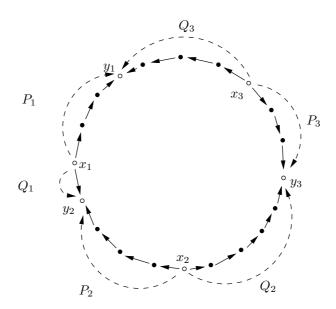


FIGURE 1. A non-oriented cycle: x_i 's and y_i 's are the vertices where the edges change orientation.

vertex labels as G_0 . The transport plan defined by G is therefore optimal, from μ to ν .

The non-existence of cycles has an important consequence.

Lemma 6.5. — Let Π be a transport plan between two finitely supported measures μ and ν , whose graph is a forest. If there is some real number r such that all $m_0^{\Pi}(v)$ and all $m_1^{\Pi}(v)$ are integer multiples of r, then all $m^{\Pi}(e)$ are integer multiples of r.

Proof. — Let $G_0 = G^{\Pi} = (V, E, m, m_0, m_1)$. If G_0 has no edge, then we are done. Otherwise, G_0 has a leaf, that is a vertex x_0 connected to exactly one vertex y_0 , by an edge e_0 . Assume for example that $e_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ (the other case is treated similarly). Then $m(e_0) = m_0(x_0) - m_1(x_0)$ is an integer multiple of r.

Define $G_1 = (V, E \setminus \{e_0\}, m', m'_0, m'_1)$ where:

- -m'(e)=m(e) for all $e \in E \setminus \{e_0\},\$
- $-m'_0(x_0) = m_0(x_0) + m(e_0),$ $-m'_0(x) = m_0(x) \text{ for all } x \in V \setminus \{x_0\},$ $-m'_1(y_0) = m_1(y_0) m(e_0),$ $-m'_1(y) = m_1(y) \text{ for all } y \in V \setminus \{y_0\}.$

Then G_1 is still admissible (with different starting and ending measures μ' and ν' , though), and all $m'_0(v), m'_1(v)$ are integer multiples of r. By induction, we are reduced to the case of an edgeless graph.

6.1.3. End of the proof. — Now we are ready to bound $W_p(f(\bar{x}), f(\bar{y}))$ from below in terms of $d_{\infty}(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$. Let Π be an optimal transport plan from $f(\bar{x})$ to $f(\bar{y})$ whose graph $G = (V, E, m, m_0, m_1)$ is a forest.

Lemma 6.6. — For all index i_0 , there is a path in G connecting x_{i_0} to y_{i_0}

Proof. — The choice of f shows that all $m_0(v), m_1(v)$ are integer multiples of $\alpha 2^{-k}$, so that all m(e) are integer multiples of $\alpha 2^{-k}$. Let $n(e), n_0(v), n_1(v) \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $m(e) = n(e)\alpha 2^{-k}, m_0(v) = n_0(v)\alpha 2^{-k}$ and $m_1(v) = n_1(v)\alpha 2^{-k}$. Then the only $v \in V = \operatorname{supp} f(\bar{x}) \cup \operatorname{supp} f(\bar{y})$ such that $n_0(v)$ contains 2^{k-i_0} in its base-2 expansion is x_{i_0} . Similarly, the only $w \in V$ such that $n_1(w)$ contains 2^{k-i_0} in its base-2 expansion is y_{i_0} . Let $E' \subset E$ be the set of edges e such that n(e) contains 2^{k-i_0} in its base-2 expansion.

Any vertex v such that $n_0(v) - n_1(v)$ does not contain 2^{k-i_0} in its base-2 expansion must be adjacent to an even number of edges of E' due to mass invariance. Therefore the non-oriented graph induced by E' has exactly two points of odd degree: x_{i_0} and y_{i_0} . It is well known and a consequence of a simple double-counting argument that a graph has an even number of odd degree vertices, from which it follows that the E'-connected component of x_{i_0} must contain y_{i_0} .

From now on, fix i_0 an index that maximizes $d(x_i, y_i)$ and let P_0 be a minimal path between x_{i_0} and y_{i_0} . Each final point of each edge in this path has to be some y_i , all distinct by minimality, so that P_0 has length at most k. It follows by a convexity argument that $c(P_0)$ is at least $k(d(x_{i_0}, y_{i_0})/k)^p$. Lemma 6.5 implies $\phi(P) \ge \alpha 2^{-k}$ so that the cost of Π is at least $\alpha 2^{-k} d(x_{i_0}, y_{i_0})^p/k^{p-1}$. We get

$$W_p(f(\bar{x}), f(\bar{y})) \geqslant \frac{\alpha^{\frac{1}{p}} 2^{-\frac{k}{p}}}{k^{1 - \frac{1}{p}}} d_{\infty}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \geqslant \frac{1}{k(2^k - 1)^{\frac{1}{p}}} d_p(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

which ends the proof of Theorem 1.2.

6.2. Discussion of the embedding constants. — One can wonder if the constants in Theorem 1.2 are optimal. We shall see in the simplest possible example that they are off by at most a polynomial factor, then see how they can be improved in a specific case.

Proposition 6.7. Let $X = \{0,1\}$ where the two elements are at distance 1 and consider a map $g: X^k \to \mathscr{W}_p(X)$ such that

$$m d_{p}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \leqslant W_{p}(g(\bar{x}), g(\bar{y})) \leqslant M d_{p}(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

for all $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in X^k$ and some positive constants m, M. Then

$$m \leqslant \frac{1}{(2^k - 1)^{\frac{1}{p}}}$$
 and $\frac{M}{m} \geqslant \left(\frac{2^k - 1}{k}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$.

Moreover there is a map whose constants satisfy $m = (2^k - 1)^{-\frac{1}{p}}$ and $M/m \leq (2^k - 1)^{\frac{1}{p}}$.

Proof. — By homogeneity, it is sufficient to consider p = 1, in which case X^k is the k-dimensional discrete hypercube endowed with the Hamming metric: two elements are at a distance equal to the number of bits by which they differ. Moreover $\mathcal{W}_1(X)$ identifies with the segment [0,1] endowed with the usual metric $|\cdot|$: a number t corresponds to the measure $t\delta_0 + (1-t)\delta_1$.

The diameter of X^k is k, so that the diameter of $g(X^k)$ is at most Mk. Since $g(X^k)$ has 2^k elements, by the pigeon-hole principle at least two of them are at distance at most $(2^k-1)^{-1}Mk$. Since the distance between their inverse images is at least 1, we get $m \leq (2^k-1)^{-1}Mk$ so that $M/m \geq (2^k-1)/k$. The pigeon-hole principle also gives $m \leq (2^k-1)^{-1}$ simply by using that $\mathcal{W}_1(X)$ has diameter 1.

To get a map g with $M/m = (2^k - 1)$, it suffices to use a Gray code: it is an enumeration $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{2^k}$ of the elements of X^k , such that two consecutive elements are adjacent (see for example [Ham80]). Letting $f(x_i) := (i - 1)/(2^k - 1)$ we get a map with $M \leq 1$ and $m = (2^k - 1)^{-1}$.

Note that in Proposition 6.7, one could improve the lower bound on M/m by a factor asymptotically of the order of $2^{\frac{1}{p}}$ by using the fact that every element in X^n has an antipode, that is an element at distance n from it.

Let us give an example where the constants are much better.

Example 6.8. — Let $X = \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ with the following metric: given $x = (x^1, x^2, \ldots) \neq y = (y^1, y^2, \ldots)$ in X, $d(x,y) = 2^{-i}$ where i is the least index such that $x^i \neq y^i$. Then given k, let ℓ be the least integer such that $2^{\ell} \geqslant k$ and let $w_1, \ldots, w_k \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ be distinct words on ℓ letters. For $x = (x^1, x^2, \ldots) \in X$ and $w = (w^1, \ldots, w^{\ell}) \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$, define wx as the element $(w^1, w^2, \ldots, w^{\ell}, x^1, x^2, \ldots)$ of X.

Now let $g: X^k \to \mathcal{W}_p(X)$ be defined by

$$g(\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{k} \delta_{w_i x_i}.$$

For all $x, y \in X$ and all $i \neq j$, we have $d(w_i x, w_j y) \ge 2^{-\ell} \ge d(w_i x, w_i y)$. It follows that

$$W_p(g(\bar{x}), g(\bar{y})) = \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_i 2^{-p\ell} d^p(x_i, y_i)\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{k^{\frac{1}{p}} 2^{\ell}} d_p(\bar{x}, \bar{y}).$$

For this example, we have M=m and moreover m has only the order of $k^{-1-\frac{1}{p}}$ instead of being exponentially small.

This example could be generalised to more general spaces, for example the middle-third Cantor set. What is important is that the various components of a given depth are separated by a distance at least the diameter of the components and that the metric does not decrease too much between d(x, y) and d(wx, wy) (any bound that is exponential in the length of w would do).

6.3. Dynamical largeness. — In this section, X is assumed to be compact. Given a continuous map $\varphi: X \to X$, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ one defines a new metric on X by

$$d_{[n]}(x,y) := \max\{d(\varphi^i(x), \varphi^i(y)); 0 \leqslant i \leqslant n\}.$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, one says that a subset S of X is (n, ε) -separated if $d_{[n]}(x, y) \ge \varepsilon$ whenever $x \ne y \in S$. Denoting by $P(\varphi, \varepsilon, n)$ the maximal size of a (n, ε) -separated set, the topological entropy of φ is defined as

$$h_{top}(\varphi) := \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \limsup_{n \to +\infty} \frac{\log P(\varphi, \varepsilon, n)}{n}.$$

Note that this limit exists since $\limsup_{n\to +\infty} \frac{1}{n} \log P(\varphi,\varepsilon,n)$ is nonincreasing in ε . The adjective "topological" is relevant since $\operatorname{htop}(\varphi)$ does not depend upon the distance on X, but only on the topology it defines. The topological entropy is in some sense a global measure of the dependance on initial condition of the considered dynamical system. The map $\times d: x \mapsto dx \mod 1$ acting on the circle is a classical example, whose topological entropy is $\log d$.

Topological entropy was first introduced by Adler, Konheim and McAndrew [AKM65] and the present definition was given independently by Dinaburg [Din70] and Bowen [Bow71].

Now, the metric mean dimension is

$$\mathrm{mdim}_M(\varphi,d) := \liminf_{\varepsilon \to 0} \limsup_{n \to +\infty} \frac{\log P(\varphi,\varepsilon,n)}{n|\log \varepsilon|}.$$

It is zero as soon as topological entropy is finite. Note that Lindenstrauss and Weiss define the metric mean dimension using covering sets rather than separated sets; but this does not matter since their sizes are comparable.

Let us now prove that when $h_{top}(\varphi) > 0$, then $\varphi_{\#} : \mathscr{W}_p(X) \to \mathscr{W}_p(X)$ has positive metric mean dimension.

Proof of Corollary 1.3. — Let $\varepsilon, \eta > 0$ and k be such that $\eta \geqslant k(2^k - 1)^{\frac{1}{p}}\varepsilon$. If A is a (n, η) -separated set for (X, φ, d) then $A^k \subset X^k$ is a (n, η) separated set for $(X^k, \varphi_k, d_\infty)$. Then Theorem 1.2 shows that $f(A^k)$ is a (n, ε) -separated set for $(\mathscr{W}_p(X), \varphi_\#, W_p)$, so that

$$P(\varphi_{\#}, \varepsilon, n) \geqslant \left(P(\varphi, k(2^k - 1)^{1/p}\varepsilon, n)\right)^k.$$

Let $H < h_{top}(\varphi)$ and $\beta < 1$. For all $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough, and for arbitrarily large integer n we have $P(\varphi, \varepsilon, n) \ge \exp(nH)$. Define

$$k = \left| \frac{\beta p(-\log \varepsilon)}{\log 2} \right|;$$

then $k(2^k-1)^{1/p}\varepsilon = O\left((-\log \varepsilon)\varepsilon^{1-\beta}\right) \to 0$ when $\varepsilon \to 0$. Therefore, for all small enough ε , there are arbitrarily large n such that

$$\begin{split} P(\varphi_{\#},\varepsilon,n) & \geqslant & \exp(nHk) \\ & \geqslant & \exp\left(nH\left(\frac{\beta p}{\log 2}(-\log \varepsilon) - 1\right)\right) \\ \frac{\log P(\varphi_{\#},\varepsilon,n)}{n(-\log \varepsilon)} & \geqslant & \frac{H\beta p}{\log 2} - \frac{H}{-\log \varepsilon} \\ \mathrm{mdim}_{M}(\varphi_{\#}, \mathbf{W}_{p}) & \geqslant & \frac{H\beta p}{\log 2} \end{split}$$

Letting $H \to h_{top}(\varphi)$ and $\beta \to 1$ gives

$$\operatorname{mdim}_{M}(\varphi_{\#}, W_{p}) \geqslant p \frac{\operatorname{h_{top}}(\varphi)}{\log 2}$$

as claimed. \Box

In the case of the shift on certain metrics on $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, one could want to use the better bound obtained in Example 6.8. But the map g defined there does not intertwin φ_k and $\varphi_{\#}$, and the method above does not apply.

7. Embedding Hilbert cubes

In this last section we prove the two theorems about embeddings of Hilbert cubes in Wasserstein spaces and deduce consequences on their critical parameters.

7.1. Embedding small Hilbert cube in the general case. — This section is devoted to the proof of Theorem 1.4. We use the same kind of map as in the proof of Theorem 1.2, but with coefficients that decrease faster to get better point separation.

We assume here that X is compact. Let $\lambda, \beta \in (0,1)$ be real numbers to be more precisely chosen afterward and consider the following map:

$$g: X^{\mathbb{N}} \to \mathscr{W}_2(X)$$

 $\bar{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \mapsto \frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \beta^n \delta_{x_n}$

where $X^{\mathbb{N}}$ will be identified with $\mathrm{HC}(X;(\lambda^n))$. We choose $\beta < 1/2$, so that g is one-to-one. It is readily seen to be a continuous map (when $X^{\mathbb{N}}$ is endowed with the product topology), and we have to bound from below $\mathrm{W}_2(g(\bar{x}),g(\bar{y}))$ for all $\bar{x},\bar{y}\in X^{\mathbb{N}}$.

First, since $g(\bar{x})$ gives a mass at least $1-\beta$ to x_1 , it gives a mass at most β to $X \setminus \{x_1\}$, and any transport plan from $g(\bar{x})$ to $g(\bar{y})$ moves a mass at least $1-2\beta$ from x_1 to y_1 . We already have $W_2(g(\bar{x}),g(\bar{y}))^2 \geqslant (1-2\beta)d(x_1,y_1)^2$.

If all distances $d(x_n, y_n)$ are of the same order as $d(x_1, y_1)$, then this first bound is sufficient for our purpose. Otherwise, we shall reduce to an optimal transport problem involving partial measures. Define a new map g_2 by $g_2(\bar{x}) = \frac{1-\beta}{\beta} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \beta^n \delta_{x_n}$; its images are measures of mass β . Note that all the theory of optimal transport applies to non probability measures, as soon as the source and target measures have the same, finite total mass. Define a new cost function

$$\tilde{c}(x,y) = \min \left(d(x,y)^2, d(x,y_1)^2 + d(x_1,y)^2 \right)$$

Let Π be any transport plan from $g(\bar{x})$ to $g(\bar{y})$. Then it can be written $\Pi = \Pi_1 + \Pi_{\rightarrow} + \Pi_{\leftarrow} + \Pi_{\leftrightarrow}$ where:

- $-\Pi_1$ has mass between $1-2\beta$ and $1-\beta$ and is supported on $\{(x_1,y_1)\}$,
- $-\Pi_{\rightarrow}$ is supported on $\{x_2, x_3, \dots\} \times \{y_1\},\$
- Π_{\leftarrow} is supported on $\{x_1\} \times \{y_2, y_3, \dots\}$ and has same mass as Π_{\rightarrow} ,
- Π_{\leftrightarrow} is supported on $\{x_2, x_3, \dots\} \times \{y_2, y_3, \dots\}$

To see this, proceed as follows. First, letting $h:(n,m)\mapsto (x_n,y_m)$ there is a measure Π' on $\mathbb{N}\times\mathbb{N}$ such that $h_{\#}\Pi'=\Pi$ and the marginals of Π' both are equal to $\frac{1-\beta}{\beta}\sum\beta^n\delta_n$. This is a direct application of classical methods, see for example the gluing lemma in [Vil03]. Then, let $\Pi'_1, \Pi'_{\leftrightarrow}, \Pi'_{\to}$ and Π'_{\leftarrow} be the restrictions of Π' to $\{(1,1)\}, \{2,3,\ldots\} \times \{2,3,\ldots\}, \{2,3,\ldots\} \times \{1\}$ and $\{1\} \times \{2,3,\ldots\}$. Then, setting $\Pi_* := h_{\#}\Pi'_*$ produces the desired decomposition.

Let m be the mass of Π_{\rightarrow} (which equals the mass of Π_{\leftarrow}) and define

$$\Pi_{\to} * \Pi_{\leftarrow} = \frac{1}{m} (p_1)_{\#} (\Pi_{\to}) \otimes (p_2)_{\#} (\Pi_{\leftarrow})$$

where p_i is the projection on the *i*-th factor. If we were to identify x_1 to y_1 , this would define a concatenation of Π_{\to} and Π_{\leftarrow} (note that the use of a product is sensible here, since the trajectories to be concatenated all would pass through $x_1 \simeq y_1$ and their is no specific coupling between the x_n 's and the y_m 's to remember).

Define further $\tilde{\Pi} = \Pi_{\leftrightarrow} + \Pi_{\rightarrow} * \Pi_{\leftarrow}$. It is in some sense the g_2 part of Π , in particular it has mass β .

Let us prove that, denoting by $c(\Pi)$ the total cost of the transport plan Π under the cost function $c = d^2$, we have

$$c(\Pi) \geqslant c(\Pi_1) + \tilde{c}(\tilde{\Pi})$$

The cost of Π is the sum of the cost of its parts, and the second term of the right-hand side is to bound from below $c(\Pi_{\to} + \Pi_{\leftarrow} + \Pi_{\leftrightarrow})$. Consider a small amount of mass moved by this partial transport plan; it goes under Π from some x_i to some y_j $(i, j \ge 2)$ either directly, or it is moved to y_1 and an equivalent amount of mass is moved from x_1 to y_j . In the first case we use $\tilde{c} \le c$, in the second case we use $\tilde{c}(x, y) \le d(x, y_1)^2 + d(x_1, y)^2$.

As already stated, $c(\Pi_1) \geqslant (1-2\beta)d(x_1,y_1)^2$, and we have left to evaluate $\tilde{c}(\tilde{\Pi})$. Given x,y, set $d_{11}=d(x_1,y_1)$, $a=d(x,y_1)$ and $b=d(x_1,y)$. By the triangle inequality, $a+b+d_{11}\geqslant d(x,y)$. Using $a^2+b^2\geqslant \frac{1}{2}(a+b)^2$, it comes $\tilde{c}\geqslant \min(d^2,\frac{1}{2}d^2-dd_{11}+\frac{1}{2}d_{11}^2)$. We shall bound $-dd_{11}$ by using $(\sqrt{\varepsilon}d-d_{11}/\sqrt{\varepsilon})^2\geqslant 0$ for any positive $\varepsilon<1$ to be optimized later on. The inequality

$$\tilde{c} \geqslant \frac{1}{2}(1-\varepsilon)d^2 - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} - 1\right)d_{11}^2$$

follows. We therefore get $c(\Pi) \ge Ad_{11}^2 + \frac{1-\varepsilon}{2}c(\tilde{\Pi})$ where

$$A = 1 - \beta \left(\frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \right)$$

is positive if ε is large enough (precisely $\varepsilon > \beta/(2-3\beta)$). Since $\tilde{\Pi}$ is a transport plan from $g_2(\bar{x})$ to $g_2(\bar{y})$ where g_2 is merely g composed with the left shift, an induction shows that

$$c(\Pi) \geqslant Ad(x_1, y_1)^2 + ABd(x_2, y_2)^2 + AB^2d(x_3, y_3)^2 + \dots$$

where

$$B = \frac{\beta}{2}(1 - \varepsilon)$$

As a consequence, g is sub-Lipschitz (with constant $\sqrt{A/B}$) from $HC(X;(\lambda^n))$ to $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ where $\lambda = \sqrt{B}$. The condition on ε implies that

$$B < \beta \frac{1 - 2\beta}{2 - 3\beta}$$

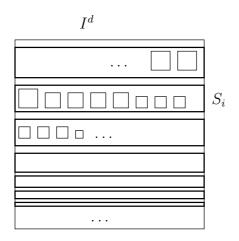


FIGURE 2. After dividing the side-length sequence into blocks, we apply the induction hypothesis to each block to get adequate families of boxes in each slide S_i .

and any such B with $\beta < 1/2$ can be obtained. The optimal value for β is 1/3, which gives an upper bound of 1/9 on B. We can therefore get any $\lambda < 1/3$.

7.2. Embedding large Hilbert cube in the rectifiable case. — This section is devoted to the proof of Theorem 1.5. The idea is to use the self-similarity at all scales of the unit cube I^d to embedd isometrically $HC(I^d, \bar{a})$ inside $\mathscr{W}_2(I^d)$ for some sequences \bar{a} . The claimed result will follow immediately, since a direct computation shows that a bi-Lipschitz embedding $A \to B$ gives a bi-Lipschitz embedding $\mathscr{W}_2(A) \to \mathscr{W}_2(B)$ by push forward.

The first step is to find appropriately scaled copy of I^d in itself; the following is an elementary geometrical fact.

Lemma 7.1. — Let $\bar{c} = (c_n)_n$ be an ℓ^d sequence of positive numbers. Then there exist a constant K depending only on d and $\sum c_n^d$ and a family of homotheties $h_n: I^d \to I^d$ with disjoint images and ratio Kc_n .

Proof. — Of course, the existence of such homotheties is equivalent to the existence of disjoint cubes (oriented according to the coordinate axes) of sidelength Kc_n in the unit cube I^d . Note that the condition $\bar{c} \in \ell^d$ is also necessary by volume considerations. Figure 2 illustrates the idea of the proof.

Since the result is independent of the order of the terms of \bar{c} , and since $\lim \bar{c}$ must be zero, we can assume that \bar{c} is non-increasing. Up to a dilation we can moreover assume that by a factor $\|\bar{c}\|_d \leq 1$, in particular $c_n \leq 1$ for all n.

Define recursively $n_0 = 0$ and

$$n_{i+1} = \max \left\{ n \left| \sum_{k=n_i+1}^n c_n^{d-1} \leqslant 2 \right. \right\}$$

It is possible that $n_i = +\infty$ for some i; let us momentarily assume it is not. We then have $\sum_{k=n_i+1}^n c_n^{d-1} \ge 1$, and

$$1 > \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k^d = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=n_i+1}^{n_{i+1}} c_k^d$$

$$\geqslant \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_{n_{i+1}} \sum_{k=n_i+1}^{n_{i+1}} c_k^{d-1} \geqslant \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_{n_{i+1}}$$

In other words, we have divided the terms of \bar{c} into groups of uniformly bounded ℓ^{d-1} norm, in such a way that the sequence of first terms of the groups is ℓ^1 . Of course, if n_i is infinite for some i, then we have the same conclusion with one group that is infinite.

Consider inside I^d non-overlapping slices of the form $S_i = I^{d-1} \times [a_i, b_i]$ such that $|b_i - a_i| > c_{n_i}$. By induction on d, for all i we can find subcubes of I^{d-1} of side length equal (up to a constant depending only on d) to $c_{n_i+1}, c_{n_i+2}, \ldots, c_{n_{i+1}}$. We can therefore find d-dimensional cubes in S_i of the same sidelengthes, and we are done.

Given an ℓ^d positive sequence \bar{c} , and up to taking a smaller factor K than given in the Lemma, we can find homotheties h_n of ratios Kc_n such that the cubes $C_n = h_n(I^d)$ are not only disjoint, but satisfy the following separation property: for all $x, y \in C_n$ and all $z \in C_m$ with $m \neq n$, d(x, y) < d(x, z).

Let $\bar{b} = (b_n)$ be any positive ℓ^1 sequence of sum 1, let $a_n = b_n^{1/2} c_n$ and consider the map

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h: \mathrm{HC}(I^d; \bar{a}) & \to & \mathscr{W}_2(I^d) \\ \\ \bar{x} & \mapsto & \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \delta_{h_n(x_n)} \end{array}$$

The separation property on the cubes C_n ensures that the optimal transport plan from $h(\bar{x})$ to $h(\bar{y})$ must be the obvious one, namely $\Pi = \sum_n b_n \delta_{h_n(x_n)} \otimes \delta_{h_n(x_n)}$. It has cost $\sum_n b_n K^2 c_n^2 d^2(x_n, y_n) = K^2 d(\bar{x}, \bar{y})^2$.

 $\delta_{h_n(y_n)}$. It has cost $\sum_n b_n K^2 c_n^2 d^2(x_n, y_n) = K^2 d(\bar{x}, \bar{y})^2$. The question is now which sequences \bar{a} can be decomposed into a product of an ℓ^2 and an ℓ^d sequence. If $\bar{a} \in \ell^{2d/(d+2)}$, one can take $\bar{b} := \bar{a}^{2d/(d+2)}$ and $\bar{c} = \bar{a}^{2/(d+2)}$, so that $a_n = b_n^{1/2} c_n$ holds and the sequences have the right summability properties to apply what precedes. We have proved the following.

Theorem 7.2. — If \bar{a} is any positive $\ell^{2d/(d+2)}$ sequence, there is a map

$$h: \mathrm{HC}(I^d; \bar{a}) \to \mathscr{W}_2(I^d)$$

that is a homothetic embedding in the sense that $d(h(\bar{x}), h(\bar{y})) = Kd(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ for some constant K.

Another way to put it is that there is a constant K and an isometric embedding $HC(I^d; K\bar{a}) \to \mathcal{W}_2(I^d)$.

Note that Hölder's inequality shows that one cannot apply our strategy to sequences not in $\ell^{2d/(d+2)}$. In fact, as we shall see below, the upper bound of Theorem 1.7 shows that the exponent 2d/(d+2) cannot be improved in general, even for a mere bi-Lipschitz embedding.

7.3. Largeness of Wasserstein spaces. — Let us conclude with the proofs of largeness results claimed in the introduction.

Proof of Proposition 1.6. — Let X be a compact metric space of positive Hausdorff dimension and $\lambda \in (0, 1/3)$. By the embedding theorem 1.4, we have a continuous sub-Lipschitz embedding $\mathrm{HC}(X;(\lambda^n)) \hookrightarrow \mathscr{W}_2(X)$. Proposition 4.2 tells us that

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{I}_2} \operatorname{HC}(X; (\lambda^n)) \geqslant \frac{\dim X}{2 \log \frac{1}{\lambda}}$$

and by Lipschitz monotonicity the same holds for $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$. Letting λ go to 1/3 finishes the proof.

Last the lower and upper bounds in Theorem 1.7 can be individually stated under more general hypotheses.

Proposition 7.3. — If X contains a bi-Lipschitz image of a Euclidean cube I^d , then $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ has at least power-exponential size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} \mathscr{W}_2(X) \geqslant d.$$

Proof. — According to Theorem 1.5, there is a bi-Lipschitz embedding from $\mathrm{HC}(I^d;(n^{-\alpha}))$ to $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$ for all $\alpha > (d+2)/(2d)$. Proposition 4.3 tells that $\mathrm{HC}(I^d;(n^{-\alpha}))$ has power-exponential critical parameter bounded below by $2/(2\alpha-1)$, which goes to d when α approaches (d+2)/(2d). Monotonicity gives the lower bound for $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$.

Let us use a counting argument to prove the following.

Proposition 7.4. — If X is a compact metric space of finite upper Minkowski dimension d, then $\mathcal{W}_2(X)$ has at most power-exponential size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} \mathscr{W}_2(X) \leqslant d.$$

Proof. — Fix some d' > d; by assumption, for all small enough ε it is possible to cover X by $D = (1/\varepsilon)^{d'}$ balls (B_i) of diameter ε . By taking intersections with complements, we can instead assume that B_i 's are disjoint Borel sets of diameters at most ε . Consider the map

$$m: \mathscr{W}_2(X) \to I^D$$

 $\mu \mapsto (\mu(B_i))_i$

and endow I^D with the ℓ^1 metric. The map m is not continuous, but whenever $E\subset I^D$ has diameter at most σ , we have

$$\operatorname{diam} m^{-1}(E) \leqslant (\operatorname{diam} X)\sqrt{\sigma} + \varepsilon.$$

Indeed, given two measures μ , ν such that $||m(\mu) - m(\nu)||_1 \leq \sigma$, we can first move an amount of mass σ of μ (by a distance at most diam X) to get a measure μ' that has the same images as ν under m, then consider any transport plan from μ' to ν that is supported on $\cup B_i \times B_i$ (that is, move mass only inside each B_i). This last transport plan has cost at most ε^2 and the triangular inequality provides the claimed bound.

Now, for all D' > D and assuming ε is small enough, it is possible to cover I^D by $(1/\varepsilon)^{2D'}$ balls (E_j) of diameter at most ε^2 . We get a covering $(\overline{m^{-1}(E_j)})_j$ of $\mathscr{W}_2(X)$ by $(1/\varepsilon)^{2D'}$ sets of diameters at most $(\operatorname{diam} X + 1)\varepsilon$. Writing $D' = D + \eta/2$, it comes

$$N(\mathcal{W}_2(X), (\operatorname{diam} X + 1)\varepsilon) \leqslant e^{\left(2\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^{d'} + \eta\right)\log\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}$$

so that $\overline{\mathrm{M}}$ -crit $\mathscr{P} \mathscr{W}_2(X) \leqslant d''$ for all d'' > d' > d, and we are done.

Now Theorem 1.7 follows: X being a manifold, it has upper Minkowski dimension d and contains a bi-Lipschitz image of I^d , so both bounds apply.

8. Largeness of subsets sets

In this section, we briefly explain how to deduce Theorem 1.8 using the same methods than above.

Let us recall that, when X is a compact metric space, $\mathscr{C}(X)$ denotes the set of all closed subsets of X, endowed with the Hausdorff metric.

Generalizing Hilbert cubes, whenever $\bar{a} = (a_n)_n$ is a sequence of positive reals such that $\lim_n a_n = 0$, let us denote by $BC(X, \infty, \bar{a})$ the space $X^{\mathbb{N}}$ endowed with the metric

$$d_{\bar{a}}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \sup_{n} a_n d(x_n, y_n)$$

Such a space shall be called a *Banach cube* while of course, topologically it is a Hilbert cube. One can similarly define Banach cubes $BC(X, p, \bar{a})$ for any

 $p \in [1, \infty]$, but we do not need that level of generality. The methods we used to measure the size of Hilbert cubes are easily generalized to Banach cubes.

Proposition 8.1. — Let Y be a compact metric space of positive Hausdorff dimension and finite upper Minkowski dimension. Then for all positive α , it holds

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} \operatorname{BC}(Y, \infty, (n^{-\alpha})) = \frac{1}{\alpha}$$

Proof. — Up to a dilation, we can assume that Y has unit diameter. Using Frostman's lemma, given any $s \leq \dim Y$, there is a measure ν on Y and a constant C such that $\nu(B(y,r) \leq Cr^s$ for all $y \in Y$ and all r > 0. Denote by μ the product measure $\otimes \nu$ on $B := \mathrm{BC}(Y,\infty,(n^{-\alpha})) \simeq Y^{\mathbb{N}}$. Choose any $\beta > \alpha$ and let N be an integer-valued function such that $N(r) \sim r^{-1/\beta}$. Then for all $\bar{y} \in B$, and r > 0 we have

$$\mu(B(\bar{y}, r) = \prod_{n=1}^{N(r)} B(y_n, n^{\alpha}r)$$

$$\subset \prod_{n=1}^{N(r)} B(y_n, n^{\alpha}r) \times Y^{\mathbb{N}}$$

and a quick computation shows that there is a constant D such that

$$\log \mu(B(\bar{y}, r)) \leqslant -D\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \log \frac{1}{r}$$

so that $\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}} B \geqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$. Letting $\beta \to \alpha$, we have the desired lower bound.

The upper bound is obtained as usual using the upper Minkowski critical parameter. There is an integer-valued function M such that $M(\varepsilon) \sim \varepsilon^{-1/\alpha}$ and diam $Y_{n-\alpha} \leq \varepsilon$ for all $n \geq M(\varepsilon)$. Writting $B = \prod Y_{n-\alpha}$ and covering each of the terms by $C\varepsilon^{-d}$ balls of diameter ε , where C, d are constants depending on Y, we see that B can be covered by at most

$$\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^{dM(\varepsilon)}$$

balls of diameter ε , and the result follows.

Now we can deduce the first part of Theorem 1.8.

Proposition 8.2. — If X contains a bi-Lipschitz image of a Euclidean cube I^d , then $\mathcal{C}(X)$ has at least power-exponential size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}}\mathscr{C}(X) \geqslant d.$$

Proof. — Using Lemma 7.1, for all d' > d there are homotheties $(h_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of ratio $Cn^{-d'}$ from I^d to I^d , with $h_n(I^d)$ and $h_m(I^d)$ separated by a distance at least $Cn^{-d'}$ for all n, m. Then the map

$$BC(I^{d}, \infty, (n^{-d'})) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}(I^{d})$$

$$(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots) \mapsto \overline{\{h_{n}(x_{n}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}}$$

defines an homothetic embedding of ratio C.

Proposition 8.1 and the monotonicity property gives the result.

Finally, the following results ends the proof of Theorem 1.8. It is proved just like its Wasserstein analogue.

Proposition 8.3. — If X is a compact metric space of finite upper Minkowski dimension d, then $\mathscr{C}(X)$ has at most power-exponential size, and more precisely

$$\operatorname{crit}_{\mathscr{P}}\mathscr{C}(X) \leqslant d.$$

Proof. — Fix some d' > d; for all small enough ε it is possible to cover X by $D=(1/\varepsilon)^{d'}$ disjoint Borel sets (B_i) of diameter at most ε . The map

$$m: \mathscr{C}(X) \rightarrow \{0,1\}^D$$

 $A \mapsto (m_i(A))_i$

defined by $m_i(A) = 1$ if and only if $A \cap B_i \neq \emptyset$ has the property that every point in $\{0,1\}^D$ has an inverse image of diameter at most ε . We get a covering of $\mathscr{C}(X)$ by 2^D sets of diameters at most ε , and it follows

$$\overline{\mathrm{M}}$$
-crit $\mathscr{P}(X) \leq d'$.

This being valid for all d' > d, we get the desired result.

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Benoît Kloeckner